

【原著】

Motivation in Language Learning and the Role of Teachers in Motivating Students and Promoting Learner Self-motivation

Matthew French

言語学習における動機づけと学生の意欲を高め
学習者の自発性を促進する教師の役割

Matthew French

Abstract

Learning English as a foreign language is a difficult task, and gaining and maintaining motivation is a constant issue that learners face. This article will undertake a short review of five significant motivation models and theories that are particularly relevant to my teaching context. With reference to those models, attention will then be focused on ways that teachers can assist with not just motivating students, but better equipping them with tools for self-motivation and autonomy.

1. Introduction

“How is it that some people can learn a foreign language quickly and expertly while others, given the same opportunities to learn, are utter failures?”

Gardner and Lambert, 1972:1

On the surface, this question put forward by Gardner and Lambert is very simple, however it has propelled over six decades of academic research and pedagogic interest in not only *why* people study other languages, but *how* they undertake the long-term task of learning a second (SL) or foreign language (FL). What motivates people to learn a second language? Some learners may be living in foreign countries and have a genuine need or desire to integrate and communicate with the community using the target language (L2). More practical minded learners may wish to expand their skills to increase job opportunities or pass school examinations. Many people find that learning a language is intrinsically enjoyable and satisfying, while others see it as a way to achieve their ideal image of themselves. Whatever the reasons, learning a language is often as a difficult and seemingly never-ending task and to persevere requires commitment and motivation. Teachers can assist with creating environments, syllabuses, and activities which can help promote interest while maintaining motivation and protecting effort as well as increasing learner autonomy

to spur learners to remain committed to language learning.

2. Second and foreign language learning motivation models

2.1 The Socio-Educational model – Gardner and Lambert

One of the most influential theories of motivation in L2 contexts was outlined in Gardner and Lambert's exploratory study of Montreal high school students studying French as a second language (Gardner and Lambert, 1959). The authors contended that accomplishment in an L2 was based on learner attitudes toward an 'other' cultural group and desire for communication or acceptance into that linguistic community. As such, purposes (orientations) for language study were classified in two ways: [1] 'integrative', where the aim of learning the language is to learn about or engage with the other language group, and [2] 'instrumental', where goals are often more pragmatic, such as increased career opportunities or passing examinations. Their initial results indicated that students with an integrative orientation were generally more successful in acquiring French than those who were more instrumentally motivated. These findings were more fully explored in their seminal research into what has become known as the Socio-Educational model of second language acquisition (Gardner and Lambert, 1972). There the authors argue that acquiring a new language involves more than simply learning new verbal habits; students must adopt behaviours of the target linguistic community, learn the words, grammar and pronunciation and cultivate a positive attitude toward the community in order to ensure success in learning the target language.

While the Socio-Educational model does not discount that instrumental factors may affect motivation, they are not considered as relevant as the integrative factors (Gardner, 1985; 2001). In the Socio-Educational model, the variable Motivation is comprised of three elements; effort, desire and (positive) affect. Learners must engage in a persistent and consistent attempt to learn the language (effort), they must want to successfully achieve the goal of learning the language (desire) and they will enjoy the task or process of learning (affect). Motivation requires that all three facets be present (Gardner, 2001). Gardner goes on to note that while the three classes of variables, Integrativeness, Attitudes Towards the Learning Situation, and Motivation form 'Integrative Motivation', it is Motivation that is responsible for achievement in the L2, with Integrativeness and Attitudes Towards the Learning Situation being seen as supports for motivation (see Figure 1).

Criticisms of the Socio-Educational model

While the Socio-Educational model has been enormously influential, there have been two major critiques of the framework. Firstly, in its initial form, the model focuses more on SL learners, particularly the focus given to the effects of integrative orientation. However, this does not adequately explain motivation in FL learners. This is a somewhat unfair characterisation, as Gardner and Lambert considered the FL context in The Philippine Study; conceding that the instrumental approach was very effective when there was a pressing need (in that case, economic) to learn the L2 (Gardner and Lambert, 1972). 'Integrativeness', as posited by Gardner and Lambert, posed an interesting enigma for subsequent researchers who found dimensions of

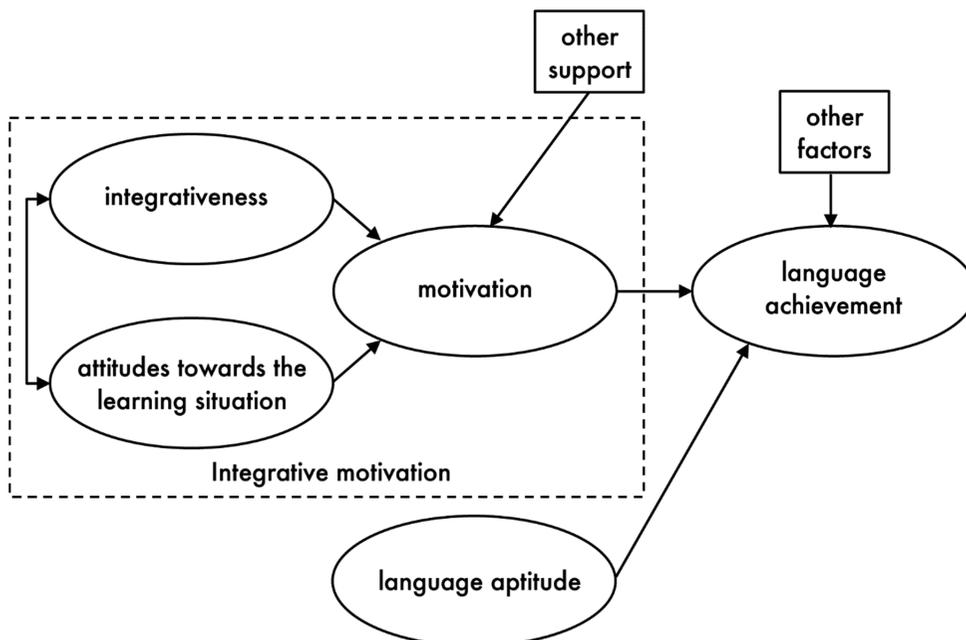


Figure 1: The role of integrativeness and attitudes in language achievement (Gardner, 2001: p5)

integrativeness in situations where there was no L2 community with which to integrate (Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei, 2010). To account for this, many researchers looked to either reinterpret or extend the definition of what might constitute ‘integrativeness’. The notion that integrativeness for FL learners might be seen as a link to a global community rather than as a means of integrating with native speakers was put forward by McClelland (2000). This was further pursued by Yashima (2002; 2009), who noted that for many Japanese learners, English wasn’t so much a language for communicating, but a symbol of the connection to the outside world and foreigners. Reflecting this connection, Yashima uses the phrase ‘international posture’ to describe learners who are more interested in, or have a more favourable attitude toward English. Secondly, the model is based on the idea of motivation being an unchanging factor; that is, there is little or no recognition that motivation has a temporal aspect and changes over time, often within the same semester or even the same day. This consideration of the temporal component of motivation was later explored in process-oriented approaches.

2.2 Linguistic Self-Confidence Theory – Richard Clément

Clément and his associate’s research into senior high school students in Montreal found that while an individual’s intention to continue studying English was related to an integrative motive, their actual competence seemed to be more closely aligned to a dimension of motivation more accurately described as ‘self-confidence in the L2’ (Clément, Gardner and Smythe, 1977). This self-confidence derived from positive prior experience and success with the language, with lack of anxiety also being a contributing factor to language acquisition, particularly in a multicultural context. Self-confidence is not necessarily reflective of someone’s actual ability, but whether they

think they have the ability to achieve a result, that a thing is 'doable', often when it has not been attempted or achieved before (Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998). Positive feedback, experiences and contact can play a great part in developing this self-confidence. Success in the past creates an image of self that is capable and frequency of contact plays an important role in this success. While direct contact and interactions are clearly more likely in multicultural environments, Clément, Dörnyei and Noels (1994) showed that the self-confidence construct could be applied to contexts where there is little direct contact with the L2 community (in that case, linguistically homogenous Hungary), but considerable indirect contact through media. This has direct implications for EFL learners who now have a staggering array of options to not just consume L2 media, but actively engage through L2 media and communities via the internet.

2.3 Self Determination Theory – Deci and Ryan

While not a theory of motivation specifically focused on language learning, Deci and Ryan's Self Determination Theory (SDT) has been enormously influential in the field (Deci and Ryan, 1985). SDT focuses on the continuum between 'intrinsic motivation' (IM) (doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable) and 'extrinsic motivation' (EM) (doing something because it leads to a separable outcome, such as gaining a reward, achieving a good test score, avoiding feeling guilt for disappointing a parent). Noels (2001; 2003 (cited in Dörnyei, 2005: p77)), expanded this binary model, proposing a larger motivational framework which also accounted for Gardner's concept of 'integrativeness'. These three dimensions would be influential in the formation of Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self-System. Noels and her associates (Noels et al, 2000) suggested that just because a student might enjoy the feeling of learning an L2 (IM), they may see the language learning process more as a puzzle to be solved, with few practical applications for their daily lives. This would have direct implications for many students studying English in an FL context, such as Japan.

2.4 The Process-Oriented model – Dörnyei and Ottó

The Process-Oriented model initially put forward by Dörnyei and Ottó was not so much a new paradigm, but rather a synthesising of many previous models to form a more comprehensive framework for practitioners (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2000), while addressing a perceived failure of the Socio-Educational model to address the temporal aspect of motivation changing over time (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998; Shoaib and Dörnyei, 2005). Dörnyei's refined Process-Oriented model of motivation encompassed three stages; [1] the preactional stage (choice motivation), [2] the actional stage (executive motivation), and [3] the postactional stage (motivational retrospection), as shown in Figure 2.

1. **The Preactional Stage:** The first key component occurs when the goal setting process, based on our wishes, desires and opportunities, reaches a concrete goal, such as 'wanting to learn English'. *Intention* differs from a 'goal' to the extent that it involves *commitment*, whereas a goal may remain a future aspiration with no concrete intentions to be carried out. The final step is the development of a manageable action plan.
2. **The Actional Stage:** In this second stage, motivation needs to be maintained and

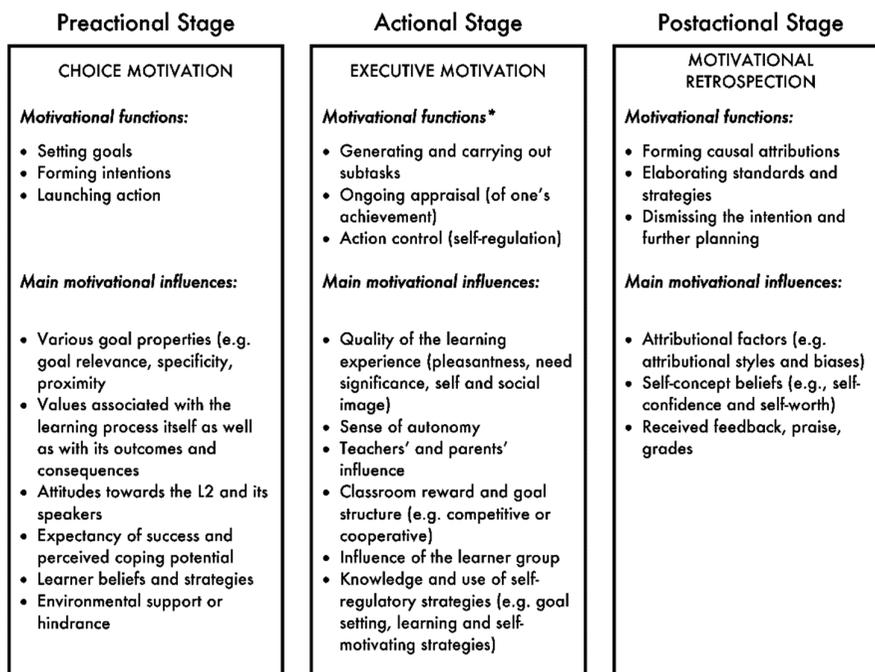


Figure 2: Dörnyei's Process-Oriented model of L2 motivation classroom (Dörnyei, 2001: 22)

protected as the natural tendency to lose sight of the goal leads to motivation eroding (Dörnyei, 2007). This is particularly relevant to classroom settings where the use of self-regulatory strategies and techniques (action control) can help protect learners' concentration and effort in the face of distractions. Based on the interaction of the appraisal and control/maintenance process, Dörnyei and Ottó contend that this will lead to some form of actional outcome for learners, confirming whether they achieved their goal or the process is stopped (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998).

3. **The Postactional Stage:** The third and final stage involves evaluating the action outcome that was accomplished. Here learners compare their initial expectations and plans of action to what actually transpired in the *actional stage* to assess to what degree their goal was reached. This review allows learners to use their experience to review their *internal standards and strategies* with a view to developing their character as a successful learner. Finally, the initial intention is *dismissed*, to enable new intentions, or even subordinate goals relating to the just completed process (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001; 2005). A simplified example of the process can be seen in Figure 3.

2.5 The L2 Motivational-Self System – Dörnyei

The idea of 'possible selves' was put forward by Hazel Markus and Paula Nurius (Markus and Nurius, 1986), tying together thinking relating to self-knowledge. It was posited that 'possible selves' represent people's ideas of what they would like to become and what they are afraid of becoming. Self-discrepancy theory provided some more insight in relation to the motivational aspects of self, stating that individuals will seek to minimise the discrepancy between their actual

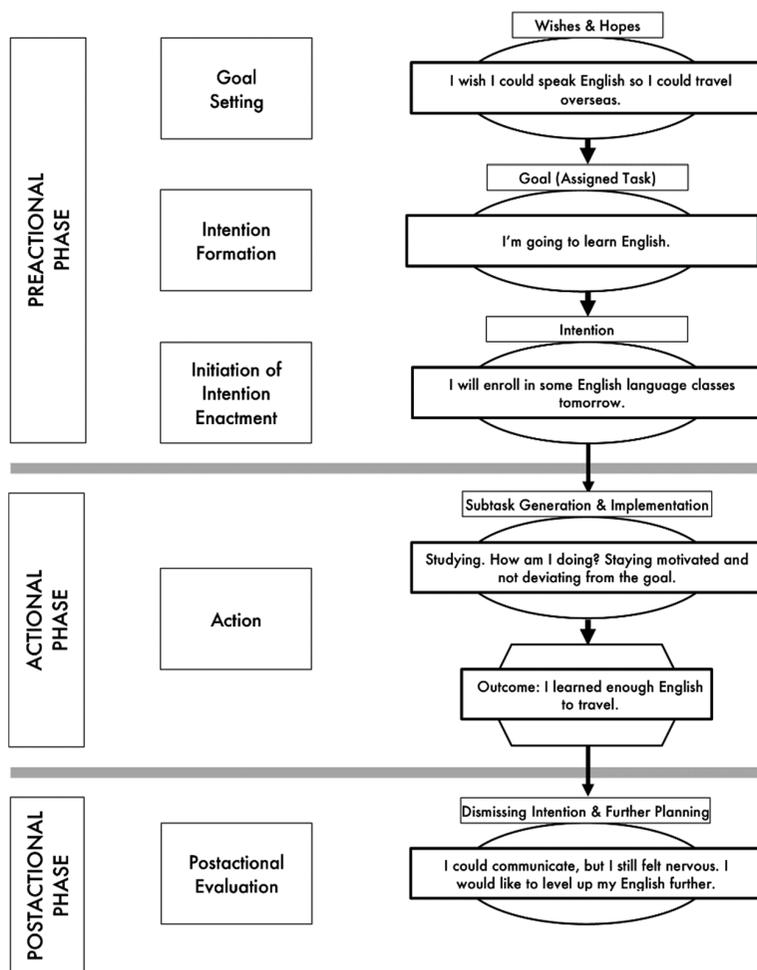


Figure 3: A simplified example of the Process-Oriented model

selves and their perceived ideal selves (Higgins, 1987). For example, a young student might see themselves as a Hollywood film star in the future and are thus motivated to study English to ensure they get more acting parts, thereby increasing the chance of closing the gap between their current self and that ideal self. From this, Dörnyei developed the L2 Motivational-self system (Dörnyei, 2005; 2010). Dörnyei's broad construct comprises three aspects:

1. *Ideal L2 Self*: the *Ideal L2 self* will be a powerful motivator if a person wants to speak an L2 because of their desire to minimise the difference between their actual and ideal self. The Ideal L2 self is who we desire to be and as such, is linked with intrinsic motivation.
2. *Ought-to L2 Self*: the *Ought-to Self* refers to all those attributes which a person believes they *should* possess, for example; duty, obligation and responsibilities, in order to avoid possible negative outcomes. The Ought-to self is who a person feels that they should be, due to outside forces, and is associated with extrinsic motivation.
3. *L2 Learning Experience*: concerns the immediate learning environment and experiences and how executive motivations relate to that environment.

3. How can teachers improve student motivation?

Having reviewed several differing frameworks on motivational factors affecting learners of other languages, what are the pedagogical implications for the classroom? How can teachers and instructors help not only motivate students, but imbue them with the skills to self-motivate?

3.1 Background – English in Japan

English is officially studied as a foreign language school subject from the third-grade of elementary school until the end of high school, ten years in total. However, Japan is a linguistically homogenous society, with the number of foreign residents from nations listing English as an official language standing at less than 0.5% of the population (Statistics Bureau, 2017; 2018). As such, there is very little need for most adults to engage with English and even less opportunity for the vast majority of students to use English for communicative purposes outside the classroom. Still, a significant percentage of secondary and university students recognise that 'knowing English' is a desirable skill (Matsuno, 2018; Yashima, 2000). This recognition doesn't necessarily equate to motivation to continue studying (Ramage, 1990) and recent nationwide survey results show English ranked as the least liked subject by junior high school students, with only 50.4% saying they enjoyed English (Benesse, 2015) and many students saying they started to dislike studying English after their mid-term tests in their first year (Matsuno, 2018) with similar opinions found in high school students. Unsurprisingly, many students arrive at Bunkyo University having had negative experiences with English and are perhaps not particularly motivated in their study of English. So, to what extent and how can we as teachers in Japan help improve our student's views of English and their motivation to study?

3.2 My teaching context – A Japanese private university

I currently lecture in English at Hiroshima Bunkyo University's "Bunkyo English Communication Centre" (BECC), in Hiroshima Prefecture, Japan. I have also previously worked as an Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) in several Junior High and Elementary Schools in Hiroshima Prefecture. I teach two compulsory courses: first-year Basic English Communication for students enrolled across all departments (Global Communication, Teaching, Nutrition, Welfare, Psychology), and third-year International Communication Strategies for students majoring in Global Communication. Classes are mixed gender, usually with more female than male students (approximately 60/40 for first-year and 70/30 for third-year). First-year students have two 90-minute lesson per week (approximately 30 students per class), while third-year students have one 90-minute lesson per week (approximately 24 students per class). I also assist with 90-minute free sessions at the university Self Assisted Learning Centre, where students can engage with teachers in conversation, playing games, watching movies, listening to music etc.

3.3 Making classes and activities interesting and relevant

Student attitudes and enjoyment are important motivational factors on learner's views of themselves as successful language users (Kormos and Csizér, 2008; Ushioda, 2001). When learners see no purpose or relevance in what they are doing in their classes, it is unlikely that

enjoyment and motivation will be high (Littlejohn, 2008). Conversely, if students see tasks or activities as being enjoyable or valuable, any perceived personal shortcomings are risked in favour of the enjoyment the class may offer (Freiermuth and Huang, 2012). As teachers, it is our responsibility to explain why it is useful to do a particular activity and how that activity relates to the wider goal of learning the language. Stimulating lessons can be developed that engage the interest of our students through the use of relevant and interesting materials and media, trialling new classroom methods and dynamics and developing intrinsically motivating task-based activities and projects (Willis, 1996). The use of ICT and digital materials may contribute to learner satisfaction in traditionally demotivating areas, such as grammar practice (Shimada, 2017) as they can provide a novel way of achieving the same goal. An additional benefit of digital and internet-based materials is the promotion of positive attitudes towards autonomous language learning, as students can undertake many of these activities at home or at their own pace. Class activities such as deconstructing pop song lyrics or dialogue from famous movie scenes chosen by the class could be one way to increase motivation through relevant materials. Using media that students are familiar with, such as comics, has also proven successful in my classes. Repurposing textbook activities to include student suggestions and experiences, and using student led questions and topics for unit related surveys and discussions are other ways to engage students as co-contributors, giving more sense of ownership and investment in their class.

3.4 Integrativeness in an FL environment for young learners

Integration in this context is referring to the broader concept of integration with a community of speakers of English, disconnected from Anglophone countries (Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002; Lamb, 2004; Yashima, 2002; Ryan, 2009). The ubiquity of the internet and the spread of English as a 'world language' allows learners to be part of a community of non-native English speakers, which has helped revitalise the concept of integration put forward by Gardner and the Socio-Educational model. With the advent of technology that allows easy interaction, the barrier between cultural products and international posture may be more permeable than ever (Piggin, 2012). Early research by Yashima indicated that 'information' (that is, access to or searching services such as the world wide web) was a relevant motivating factor even before the internet as we now know it reached mass adoption (Yashima, 2000) and results obtained by McClelland (2000) highlighted the importance of pop culture, such as English language movies, for students to engage with the outside world of English speakers. This window into the values and lifestyles of other countries should not be underestimated and is very closely linked to the 'relevance' and 'interest' dimensions of motivation, discussed above. Freiermuth and Huang (2012) showed that using web-based chat resources specifically designed to allow language learners to talk with other speakers of English garnered very positive results in terms of student interest, engagement and positive attitudes towards the other culture. Students remained engaged throughout the class, completing authentic tasks with other non-native English speakers to achieve a goal that required using English, and were very positive about their successful communicative efforts. Such positive attitudes and an international posture can be developed though higher exposure to communicative and content-based activities.

3.5 Encouraging the Ideal L2 Self and fostering an ‘international posture’

Research has indicated that the Ideal L2 Self and the idea of an international posture may naturally be more relevant to older learners, (Kormos and Csizér, 2008; Ryan, 2009), however I believe that university students are at a pivotal age to start raising awareness of these dimensions of themselves. Adult Japanese learners of English are often characterised as ‘false beginners’, having studied extensively, but having limited output skills and confidence. However, adult learners have commented on positive experiences in their younger days as being influential on their current attitudes towards learning (Shoib and Dörnyei, 2005). Encouragement for students to consider their ideal selves is imperative as they wrestle with their identities. It is unrealistic to expect a young first-year student to have the same capacity, opportunity, or even desire to construct an ‘Ideal L2 Self’ and accompanying international posture as an adult, however, by helping students see who they might potentially become, for example a person who can communicate in another language confidently, teachers can help focus a student’s vision of their ideal self. Activities that focus on ‘future selves’ could prove invaluable in encouraging students to think in more concrete terms about how they see themselves now versus the person they desire to be. Activities revolving around potential future careers, how they see their future personal lives or even organising a mock ten year class reunion (Fukada et al, 2011) where students develop their future ideal self to share with classmates can help with developing their Ideal L2 Self.

3.6 Increase the learners’ linguistic self-confidence and autonomy

Student self-confidence is crucial to their achieving success and students who feel that they have little chance for success will naturally find it difficult to be motivated. Self-confidence can be improved by ensuring classes and activities have clear, achievable goals, by using sub-goals for longer or more difficult tasks and ensuring that tasks are matched to the abilities of students (Littlejohn, 2008). Clément (1980) proposed that lack of anxiety bolstered self-confidence in the L2 and this was supported by frequent pleasant (that is, ‘quality’) interactions. (Clément, 1980; Clément and Kruidenier; 1985). Positive and encouraging in-class interactions with other English and Japanese teachers and Japanese support staff may be noticed and internalised by students. As one of the only L2 community members that my students will interact with on any meaningful level, it is important that lecturers create a classroom atmosphere that is free from anxiety or judgement, in order to encourage students to take risks. This can be reinforced in classroom activities by focusing on communication and fluency in the first instance, emphasising what students can do, rather on what they can’t do.

Related to self-confidence, it is important to promote autonomy. As Ushioda states, “autonomous language learners are by definition motivated learners” (1996: 2, cited in Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998). However, this needs to be reconciled with the fact that Japanese students are not necessarily taught, or even expected to be autonomous, even at the university level. Thus, students might require guidance in terms of ‘learning how to learn’ (Burrows, 2008a; 2008b). It is also worth considering that autonomy doesn’t need to only be of the proactive kind (taking charge, determining objectives, selecting methods and evaluating results). Autonomy may present itself as reactive. Once a direction has been initiated, it can enable learners to organise their resources

autonomously in order to reach their goals; students are stimulated to learn their vocabulary without being pushed, to review past exams papers on their own initiative, or organise study groups to cover a class project or assignment (Littlewood, 1999). Students can be encouraged to engage e-learning and internet-based tasks outside of class to promote autonomy. This could be an opportunity for teachers and students to create a more 'negotiated culture' by developing class resource lists that are expanded as the school year progresses.

4. Conclusion

There is no doubt that improving, and more importantly, maintaining motivation in a classroom environment is an endeavour that all teachers and students will struggle with throughout their teaching and learning lives. This is particularly true for young EFL learners who are primarily learning English as a subject and do not have direct contact with the second language community. Creating encouraging and stimulating classes that focus on communication and integrativeness, ensuring ongoing opportunities for success and equipping students with the tools to maintain motivation are goals to which all teachers should aspire, with the eventual aim of having our students becoming more self-confident and self-motivated.

It is important to remember that these frameworks and models for motivation are not necessarily exclusive or exhaustive and dimensions from many or all of them may affect the learning process. Motivation is also not static and it is worth reminding students that they are not bound by their present selves and that change is always possible. Being learners in an EFL environment, Japanese students may be more likely to experience extrinsic motivation, however this could lead to more intrinsic motivation by internalising motives or discovering new intrinsic aspects of a task through longer engagement in them. As English continues its expansion as a medium of language exchange, it is naturally becoming increasingly disconnected from its native speaking communities. However, this may be a very effective motivator for young Japanese students because it opens the possibility of legitimate, full membership to a community that may have seemed out of reach in the past.

5. References

- Benesse Educational Research and Development Institute (2015) 第5回学習基本調査データブック2015 (**The 5th data book of basic research 2015**) [online]. Available from: <https://berd.benesse.jp/shotouchutou/research/detail1.php?id=4801> [Accessed on 21 March 2019].
- Burrows, C. (2008a) Socio-cultural barriers facing TBL in Japan. **The Language Teacher**, 32 (8), pp. 15–19.
- Burrows, C. (2008b) An evaluation of task-based learning (TBL) in the Japanese classroom. **English Today**, 24 (4), 11–16.
- Clément, R. (1980) "Ethnicity, contact and communicative competence in a second language." In Giles, H., Robinson, W. P. and Smith, P. M. (eds.) **Language: Social psychological perspectives**. Oxford: Pergamon, pp. 147–154.
- Clément, R., Gardner, R. C. and Smythe, P. C. (1977) Motivational variables in second language acquisition: A study of Francophones learning English. **Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science**, 9 (2), pp. 123–133.
- Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z. and Noels, K. A. (1994) Motivation, self-confidence, and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. **Language Learning**, 44 (3), pp. 417–448.

- Clément, R. and Kruidenier, B. G. (1985) Aptitude, attitude and motivation in second language proficiency: A test of Clément's model. **Journal of Language and Social Psychology**, 4 (1), pp. 21–37.
- Deci, E. L. and Ryan, R. M. (1985) **Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behaviour**. New York: Plenum.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2000) Motivation in action: Towards a process-oriented conceptualisation of student motivation. **British Journal of Educational Psychology**, 70 (4), pp. 519–538.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001) **Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom**. Cambridge Language Teaching Library. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005) **The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition**. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007) "Creating a motivating classroom environment." In Cummins, J. and Davison, C. (eds.) **International Handbook of English Language Teaching**. New York: Springer.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2010) Researching motivation: From integrativeness to the ideal L2 self. In Hunston, S. and Oakey, D. (eds.) **Introducing applied linguistics: Concepts and skills**. London: Routledge, pp. 74–83.
- Dörnyei, Z. and Csizér, K. (1998) Ten commandments for motivating language learners: Results of an empirical study. **Language Teaching Research**, 2, pp. 203–229.
- Dörnyei, Z. and Csizér, K. (2002) Some Dynamics of Language Attitudes and Motivation- Results of a Longitudinal Nationwide Survey. **Applied Linguistics**, 23 (4), pp. 421–462.
- Dörnyei, Z. and Ottó, I. O. (1998) Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation. **Working Papers in Applied Linguistics (Thames Valley University, London)**, 4, pp. 43–69.
- Freiermuth, M. R. and Huang, H. (2012) Bringing Japan and Taiwan closer electronically: A look at an intercultural online synchronic chat task and its effect on motivation. **Language Teaching Research**, 16 (1), pp. 61–88.
- Fukada, Y., Fukada, T., Falout, J., et al. (2011) "Increasing motivation with possible selves." In Stewart, A. (ed.). **JALT2010 Conference Proceedings**, pp. 337–349.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985) **Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation**. London: Edward Arnold.
- Gardner, R. C. (2001) "Integrative motivation and second language acquisition." In Dörnyei, Z. and Schmidt, R. (eds.) **Motivation and second language acquisition**. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, pp. 1–19.
- Gardner, R. C. and Lambert, W. E. (1959) Motivational variables in second language acquisition. **Canadian Journal of Psychology**, 13, pp. 266–272.
- Gardner, R. C. and Lambert, W. E. (1972) **Attitudes and motivation in second-language learning**. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Higgins, E. T. (1987) Self-discrepancy: A theory relating self and affect. **Psychological Review**, 94 (3), pp. 319–340.
- Kormos, J. and Csizér, K. (2008) Age-related differences in the motivation of learning English as a foreign language: Attitudes, selves, and motivated learning behavior. **Language Learning**, 58 (2), pp. 327–355.
- Lamb, M. (2004) Integrative motivation in a globalizing world. **System**, 32 (1), pp. 3–19.
- Littlejohn, A. (2008) The tip of the iceberg: factors affecting learner motivation. **RELC Journal**, 39 (22), pp. 214–225.
- Littlewood, W. (1999) Defining and developing autonomy in East Asian contexts. **Applied Linguistics**, 20 (1), pp. 71–94.
- Littlewood, W. (2007) Communicative and task-based language teaching in East Asian classrooms. **Language Teaching**, Cambridge University Press, 40 (3), pp. 243–249.
- Markus, H. and Nurius, P. (1986) Possible selves. **American Psychologist**, 41 (9), pp. 954–969.
- Matsuno, S. (2018) Japanese learners' consciousness toward English: When do they begin to like or dislike English? **The Language Teacher**, 42 (4), pp. 19–23.
- McClelland, N. (2000) "Goal orientations in Japanese college students learning EFL." In Cornwell, S. and Robinson, P. (eds.) **Individual differences in foreign language learning: Effects of aptitude, intelligence, and motivation**. Tokyo: Japanese Association for Language Teaching, pp. 99–115.
- Noels, K. A. (2001) Learning Spanish as a second language: Learners' orientations and perceptions of their teachers' communication style. **Language Learning**, 51 (1): 107–144.
- Noels, K. A. (2003) "Learning Spanish as a second language: Learners' orientations and perceptions of their

- teachers' communication style". In Dörnyei, Z. (ed.) **Attitudes, orientations and motivations in language learning**. Oxford: Blackwell, pp. 97–136.
- Noels, K. A., Pelletier, L. G., Clément, R., et al. (2000) Why Are You Learning a Second Language? Motivational Orientations and Self-Determination Theory. **Language Learning**, 50 (1), pp. 57–85.
- Piggin, G. (2012) The pedagogic application of the process-orientated model of L2 motivation. **Polyglossia**, 22, pp. 59–66.
- Ramage, K. (1990) Motivational factors and persistence in foreign language study. **Language Learning**, 40 (2), pp. 189–219.
- Ryan, S. (2009) "Self and identity in L2 motivation in Japan: The Ideal L2 Self and Japanese learners of English." In Dörnyei, Z. and Ushioda, E. (eds.) **Motivation, language identity, and the L2 self**. Bristol: Multilingual Matters, pp. 120–143.
- Shimada, K. (2017) Textbooks or E-learning? Learners' preferences and motivations in a Japanese EFL classroom. **The Language Teacher**, 41 (2), pp. 3–8.
- Shoib, A. and Dörnyei, Z. (2005) "Affect in lifelong learning: Exploring L2 motivation as a dynamic process." In Benson, P. and Nunan, D. (eds.) **Learners' stories: Difference and diversity in language learning**. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 22–41.
- Statistics Bureau (2017) **Status of residence foreigners statistics (old registered foreign statistics)**. Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (Japan) [online]. Available from: https://www.e-stat.go.jp/stat-search/files?page=1&query=17-12-01-1&layout=dataset&stat_infid=000031669224 [Accessed 19 March 2019].
- Statistics Bureau (2018) **Population estimate**. Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (Japan) [online]. Available from: <http://www.stat.go.jp/data/jinsui/pdf/201810.pdf> [Accessed on 19 March 2019].
- Ushioda, E. (1996) **Learner autonomy 5: The role of motivation**. Dublin: Authentik.
- Ushioda, E. (2001) "Language learning at university: exploring the role of motivational thinking." In Dörnyei, Z. and Schmidt, R. (eds.) **Motivation and second language acquisition**. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, pp. 93–125.
- Willis, J. (1996) **A framework for task-based learning**. Harlow, Essex: Longman.
- Yashima, T. (2000) Orientations and motivation in foreign language Learning: A study of Japanese college students. **JACET Bulletin**, 31, pp. 121–133.
- Yashima, T. (2002) Willingness to Communicate in a Second Language: The Japanese EFL Context. **The Modern Language Journal**, 86 (1), pp. 54–66.
- Yashima, T. (2009) International posture and the ideal L2 self in the Japanese EFL context. In Dörnyei, Z. and Ushioda, E. (eds.) **Motivation, language identity, and the L2 self**. Bristol, Multilingual Matters. Bristol: Multilingual Matters, pp. 144–163.

—2022年9月30日 受理—